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1 **Climate Changes in central Mediterranean and Italian vegetation dynamics since the**
2 **Pliocene.**

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33 Abstract

34 Pollen records and pollen-based climate reconstructions from the Italian Peninsula (central
35 Mediterranean) show clear signals of vegetation changes linked to variations in water
36 availability in the Mediterranean basin over the past 5 million years. Profound vegetation
37 changes occur in four major steps from the Pliocene to the present. The subtropical taxa that
38 dominate Pliocene assemblages decline and then disappear between 3-2.8 and 1.6 Ma (at
39 around 2.8 Ma in the North and later in the South), progressively replaced by temperate
40 *Quercus* forests at mid altitude, with increasing *Quercus* development at around 1.4-1.3 Ma in
41 the South and increasing *Fagus* proportions after 0.5 Ma. Conifer forest (*Tsuga* then *Abies*
42 and *Picea*) expanded at high altitude, beginning at 2.8 Ma. Mediterranean-type forest, rare
43 during the Early Pleistocene, develops and increases in diversity during the Middle and Early
44 Pleistocene. Open landscapes, with higher abundances of steppic taxa, increase with the onset
45 of Glacial/Interglacial cyclicity around 2.6 Ma and gradually enlarge during glacials. Climate
46 reconstructions performed on selected southern Italy pollen records suggest declines winter
47 temperature and annual precipitation. Specifically, both precipitation and winter temperature
48 reconstructions suggest changes in interglacial maxima and glacial minima at around 3-2.8
49 Ma, 2 Ma, 1.3-1.4 Ma and 0.5 Ma.

50 This critical review provides evidence that the North-South precipitation gradient, with drier
51 conditions in the South, had been a consistent feature on the Italian peninsula since the
52 beginning of the Pleistocene.

53

54 **Keywords: Mediterranean, vegetation, Climate, Plio-Pleistocene, Italy, palynology.**

55 1. Introduction

56 The Mediterranean basin is considered a global biodiversity hotspot (e.g. Medail and
57 Quezel, 1997, 1999; Giorgi, 2006; Christensen et al., 2007). Given projections of future
58 regional climate, and the particular importance of water resources in the region, the
59 preservation of ecosystems within the basin is considered a key goal for governments (IPCC,
60 2007). Indeed, given the importance of water resources within the basin, particularly in the
61 south, both climate and growing demographic pressures in coastal zones are likely to place
62 continued stresses on ecosystems across the region.

63 Water availability is a key factor limiting plant growth and is an important driver for
64 vegetation composition (Daget, 1977; Venetier et al., 2010). The future composition of
65 Mediterranean ecosystems is thus clearly tied to water availability. While modern vegetation
66 data from the region provides an excellent baseline for understanding relationships between
67 aridity and vegetation composition, paleoecological records provide support for understanding
68 vegetation responses at longer time scales. Paleoecological records show that aridity had not
69 been a persistent feature within the Mediterranean basin, appearing somewhat recently and
70 gradually increasing up to the present time (Pons et al., 1995). Even during the Messinian
71 salinity crisis, MSC (5.9 - 5.3 Ma), aridity did not play a major role in restructuring
72 vegetation. Climate was dry in the southern Mediterranean before, during and after the MSC
73 (Suc and Bessais, 1990; Bertini, 2006; Fauquette et al., 2006). Mediterranean-type taxa,
74 sporadically present in the basin since the Paleocene, increase their importance in the course
75 of the most recent time. The development of modern Mediterranean ecosystems seems to be
76 linked to increasing dryness and seasonality focusing that dryness during summer times
77 (Quézel and Médail, 2003; Pons et al, 1995).

78 Researchers have documented the stepwise Pliocene-Pleistocene development of
79 modern Mediterranean ecosystems and climate, even though sparse records have hindered
80 basin-wide reconstructions (Pons et al., 1995; Sadori et al., 2013a). Given the limited number
81 of available records, reconstructing long-term (5 Myr) vegetation changes on the Italian
82 Peninsula will help to identify links between increasing dryness in the region and vegetation
83 change. The Italian peninsula stretches across the centre of the Mediterranean basin along a
84 northwest to southeast way. The Appenine Mountains running as a backbone in the
85 peninsulageneratea heterogenous vegetation along elevation and latitudinal gradients. Several
86 distinct climatic systems influence the climate in Italy: polar air masses from the North,
87 tropical air masses from the South, Atlantic Westerlies and a monsoon system from the East
88 (Lionello et al., 2006). This results in a climate gradient from North to South, with higher
89 humidity in the North and increasing aridity to the South. Italy thus represents one of the most
90 informative Mediterranean areas to (i) reconstruct the response of vegetation to various
91 climatic stresses and (ii) assess the future behavior of Mediterranean plants. Furthermore,
92 Italy's rich geological record makes it a significant source of information on the history of
93 Mediterranean vegetation.

94 Given the uneven distribution of the pollen record in Italy, this paper will describe
95 reconstructions from Northern and Southern Italy whose boundary was fixed in this paper at
96 42.5°N, an isocline that approximately splits Italian peninsula according to the duration of the
97 dry season, more or less than 3 months. This division allows us to describe continuous change
98 in Mediterranean plant associations and the long and short-term climatic changes that have
99 occurred in the Mediterranean basin during the last 5 million years.

100 2. Present day Italian climate and vegetation

101 Italy is a mountainous country, bounded in the North by the Alps, with the Apennine range
102 running as a backbone from northwest to southeast. The Po Valley is a large plain situated in
103 the north from the Ligurian Alps to the Adriatic Sea.

104 The Italian peninsula is located at the mid-latitudes and exhibits in some portions
105 Mediterranean climate features, with mild winters and a pronounced drought during the
106 warmest season (Fig. 1). The effects of the Mediterranean climate are markedly evident on the
107 coasts and attenuated on the pre-Alpine chains. In the Apennines, the altitude increase
108 produces a rapid transition towards less hot and dry summers, while in the Alps the
109 continentality increases in going inward the mountain range (cold winters and hot summers),
110 leading to strong temperature fluctuations. The Po Valley, as a result of the isolation produced
111 by the Apennine mountains to the sea, has a continental thermal regime. It results therefore in
112 an evident climatic gradient from the warm-temperate climate with a Mediterranean character
113 to the cold-temperate climate of the Apennines or pre Alpine ranges, up to the cold and
114 continental climate of the innermost Alps. Such a complex and diversified scenario, along
115 with a strong north to south climatic gradient deeply affected the flora distribution and
116 structure of vegetation. The actual state of knowledge of the Italian vegetation is stated in
117 several reports (e.g. Ozenda, 1975, 1994; Tomaselli, 1973; Bonin, 1981; Pignatti, 1998;
118 Quezel and Médail, 2003; Blasi, 2010). The European potential natural vegetation zones with
119 the main physiognomic-ecological units for the Italian area have been summarized in Fig. 1
120 (modified from Pignatti, 2011).

3. Material and methods

3.1 Pollen records

This review is based on the available paleoecological literature for Italy based on palynology and paleobotanical information and 17 pollen records (Fig. 2, Table 1). These data help to reconstruct vegetation change in Italy, and its links to increasing dryness since the Pliocene. Pollen data is distributed unevenly across the region, and so each site has been assigned to either “Northern” or “Southern” Italy relative to the arbitrary latitude of 42.5°N, an isocline that approximately splits Italy according to the duration of the dry season (more or less than 3 months). Vegetation types from pollen records and the literature are plotted for glacial and interglacial periods within six key geological periods during the last 5 Myr: Zanclean-Piacenzian, Early Pleistocene (Gelasian, 2.588-1.806 Ma, and Calabrian, 1.806-0.781 Ma), Middle Pleistocene (“*Ionian*”, 0.781-0.126 Ma), Late Pleistocene (“*Tarantian*”, 0.126-0.01 Ma) and the Holocene (Fig. 3a and b). Sites that combine long time series, coverage in key time periods and consistent age models (Table 1 in bold, Fig. 2 in red), provide the opportunity to develop a model of continuous vegetation change throughout Italy. The pollen diagrams of these selected sites have been plotted with Psimpoll (Bennett, 2008) with a subset of the total taxa to illustrate the major changes in the Italian vegetation since the Pliocene (Fig. 4a and b).

The term “Taxodiaceae” is used in quotations throughout this paper because many genera formerly assigned to Taxodiaceae are now grouped in subfamilies of Cupressaceae, for example Taxodioideae Endl. ex K. Koch (*Taxodium*, *Glyptostrobus*, and *Cryptomeria*) and Sequoioideae (Luer ss.) Quinn (*Sequoia*, *Sequoiadendron*, and *Metasequoia*). The genus *Sciadopitys* is now generally placed in Sciadopityaceae (Brunsfield et al., 1994; Farjon, 1998, 2005). However, the term “Taxodiaceae” has been commonly used in Italian records where it

145 is commonly assumed to represent *Sciadopitys*, *Taxodium* type (which includes *Taxodium* cf.
146 *distichum* and *Glyptostrobus*) and *Sequoia* type (which includes *Cryptomeria*, *Cunninghamia*,
147 *Metasequoia glyptostroboides*, *Sequoiadendron giganteum* and *Sequoia sempervirens*, and).
148 Because of the diversity of taxa represented by the term “Taxodiaceae” it is not easy to revisit
149 the records and apply the new taxonomy. Thus we have chosen to keep the term
150 “Taxodiaceae”, as used in older publications, but we will provide greater clarity when
151 possible.

152 3.2 Climate reconstructions

153 Climate reconstruction using pollen records allow the reconstruction of the climate
154 trends that have driven changes in Italian vegetation over the last 5 Ma. Depending on the
155 period of interest we have used different methods for reconstructing climate. Annual
156 precipitation and temperature have been reconstructed using (1) probability mutual climatic
157 spheres (PCS), which use the modern climatic requirements of plants, transposed to plants
158 assemblages (Klotz, 1999; Klotz et al., 2006) using 60 out of 110 taxa identified in the fossil
159 pollen floras for reconstruction from Pliocene to Early Pleistocene (e.g. Klotz et al., 2006;
160 Fauquette et al., 1999, 2007). This method is actually the best way to reconstruct climate
161 parameters from old pollen records that contain vegetation association that are not found
162 today over the world. From the Middle Pleistocene to the Holocene (2) the Modern Analogue
163 Technique (MAT) was used (Guiot, 1990; Joannin et al., 2011; Combourieu-Nebout et al.,
164 2013; Peyron et al., 2013). The mean temperature of coldest month (MTCO), summer
165 precipitation (PSUM), winter precipitation (PWIN) and annual precipitation (PANN) are
166 presented here for MAT reconstructions.

167 This effort represents the first climate reconstruction spanning the entire Pleistocene
168 for this region, a time of major change in vegetation composition, and for reconstructions

169 isolating the cold and warm periods during the Middle and Late Pleistocene. Because
170 temporal resolution is likely to be low, climate is presented as boxplots for temperature and/or
171 precipitation within the chosen intervals. Box plots for reconstructions of four different
172 climate parameters : mean temperature of the coldest month (MTCO), winter precipitation
173 (PWIN), summer precipitation (PSUM) and mean annual temperature (TANN) during glacials
174 and interglacials were calculated and plotted using R (R Core Team, 2012). The boxes
175 represent the extent of the second and third quartiles, dotted delimited lines represent data
176 extreme intervals. The median is indicated by a heavy line within the box.

177 **3.3 chronology**

178 Chronology from the pollen records have been compiled here according to their respective
179 age models published in the literature. As appropriate for each period, age models are based
180 on 14C datings, links to Greenland Ice core records and tephra layer data for the most recent
181 series, and K/Ar datings, foraminifers zonation, links to oxygen isotope records from
182 Mediterranean or Atlantic reference records and astronomical tunings for the oldest ones. The
183 purpose is not to discuss the individual age model even if each one has their own limits. The
184 proposed review intends to reconstruct the general pattern of the Italian vegetation changes
185 that goes from the Pliocene to the present day one.

186

187 **4.The Italian vegetation : the outcome to the progressive drought increasing trend**

188 **4.1 Emergence of the Mediterranean vegetation communities in Italy**

189 Climate in the Mediterranean had changed repeatedly at least since the Eocene when
190 tropical, warm-humid conditions prevailed. The development of the Mediterranean climatic

191 regime, punctuated by a dry season, occurred in the late Pliocene (Suc, 1984), a time when
192 cooling is observed in marine records (Poore and Bergreen, 1975; Sprovieri et al., 2006).
193 Glacial/Interglacial (G/I) cycles, beginning in the Pleistocene, have reinforced Mediterranean
194 climate conditions by maintaining mesic interglacials and dry glacials (Pons et al., 1995)

195 Modern Mediterranean taxa were present, but only sporadically, in the Paleogene (Fig.
196 5). Mediterranean taxa have been reported in the western Mediterranean since the Paleocene,
197 even though diversification of Mediterranean flora followed the end of the Oligocene (Quézel
198 and Médail, 2003). Oligocene fossils of Oleaceae (pollen and leaves) have been reported from
199 Northern Italy (Sachse, 2001). However, the development of truly Mediterranean vegetation
200 occurs later during the Miocene, with the weak onset of summer dryness favoring its
201 establishment in Italy and throughout the Mediterranean basin.

202 Xerophytic taxa were reported in the north Mediterranean from deposits as early as the
203 Miocene (e.g. de Saporta, 1889; Bessedik, 1985); nevertheless semi-arid associations were a
204 minor component in the rich tropical vegetation that colonized the Mediterranean (e.g.,
205 Bertini, 2006; Fauquette et al., 2006, 2007; Bertini and Martinetto, 2008, 2011). The MSC, as
206 well, does not seem to have played a major role in restructuring vegetation, although in some
207 periods (e.g. close to 5.5 Ma) aridity appears to have promoted the expansion of open
208 vegetation including steppe plants such as *Lygeum* (Bertini, 2006). The expansion of semi-
209 arid associations across the Mediterranean seems rather related to (1) the development of a
210 Mediterranean climate during the Pliocene and (2) the periodic occurrences of aridity since
211 the onset of the Pleistocene. Semi-arid plant communities develop during the Pliocene and
212 expand at low to middle altitude during the middle Pleistocene.

213 4.2 The Pliocene, the starting picture

214 A rich, diverse Pliocene flora is found in Italian sites after the MSC. Pollen data in
215 Northern Italy come from several sites, while in South Italy, only rare pollen data are
216 available (Fig. 3a and b; Tab 1) making vegetation synthesis difficult across the peninsula
217 (e.g. Bertini, 2010; Bertini et al., 2010 and reference therein).

218 Pliocene forests in the north were composed of rare tropical to common subtropical taxa
219 such as *Taxodium*-type mixed with temperate trees (Bertini, 2001; Fauquette and Bertini,
220 2003; Zheng and Cravatte, 1986; Zheng 1990) (Fig. 3a; Fig. 4a). Swamp environments were
221 widespread and herbs were a minor component of the vegetation (Fig. 6a and b). After 3 Ma,
222 following marine cooling, an altitudinal forest developed, with major increases in *Picea*
223 followed by *Cedrus* and *Tsuga* while *Taxodium*-type forest declined (Bertini, 2001, 2010).

224 In southern Italy, vegetation records are provided in few areas. Thus, in Sicily which is the
225 southernmost part of Italy at Punta Piccola (Combourieu-Nebout et al., 2004) and Capo
226 Rossello (Guerrera et al., 1984; Bertoldi et al., 1989; Bertoldi, 1985a; Suc et al., 1995) open
227 herbaceous vegetation had already expanded although steppic taxa were still sporadic.
228 *Quercus* forest was here restricted to mountains, and contained relicts of subtropical taxa.
229 Further information would be usefull to conclude on what really happened to the southern
230 Italian vegetation during this period and how was the open evegetation exactly expanded at this
231 time.

232 This contrast between the north and southern-south supports the early occurrence of a
233 north-to-south climate gradient in Italy during the Pliocene, similar to the broader
234 Mediterranean climate at this time (Fauquette et al., 2007). It adds to an evident west-est
235 gradient also suggested out by palynological records since the Neogene in the entire
236 Mediterranean area (Suc et al., 1995; Bertini, 2006, 2010; Fauquette et al., 2006, 2007).

237 During the early Pliocene, climate conditions were prevalently sub-tropical with year-round
238 moisture and warm temperature (e.g. Fauquette and Bertini, 2003). Mean annual temperatures
239 were between 12 and 20°C in northern Italy while they exceeded 22°C in Sicily (Fauquette et
240 al., 1999, 2007). Annual precipitation was between 1100 and 1400 mm in the North and
241 decreasing down to ~600 mm in the South (Fauquette et al., 1999, 2007). Although the extent
242 of seasonality is unknown, mean values are similar to modern ones.

243 **4.3 The Pleistocene: onset of recurrent drought pressure and influence on the** 244 **Mediterranean ecosystems**

245 4.3.1 The Early Pleistocene (EP, 2.588-0.781 Ma, Gelasian and Calabrian) and the 246 regression of subtropical trees

247 The development of the Arctic ice cap at the beginning of Pleistocene had significant
248 impacts on global climate. The Early Pleistocene corresponds to the initiation of the
249 glacial/interglacial (G/I) alternations that had largely driven the millennial-scale climate
250 variability as well depicted in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records (for the Mediterranean Sea, see Lourens et al.,
251 1996, 2004) (Fig. 4a). In the Mediterranean, especially in Italy, geological processes, such as
252 Apennine uplift and sea level change further modified the larger cyclic processes and resulted
253 in changes in vegetation composition and structure. Several records have illustrated the
254 occurrence and dynamic of climate cycles during this period (Combourieu-Nebout, 1993,
255 1995, Combourieu-Nebout et al., 2000; Fusco, 1996, 2007; Bertini, 2001, 2003, 2010, 2013;
256 Capraro et al., 2005, Joannin et al., 2007; Bellucci et al., 2014). The start of G/I cycles and
257 especially the occurrences of the cold glacial periods had favored a rise in steppic taxa, that
258 had continued their expansion throughout the Pleistocene up until the present time. At the
259 same time, forest diversity declined as a result of the progressive decline and loss of sub-
260 tropical taxa during the Early and Middle Pleistocene (Fig. 3a). As noted above, the North-

261 South climate gradient, marked by increasing dryness towards the South, was already well
262 established at this time (Fig. 3a and Fig 4a) (Fusco, 2007).

263 During the Early Pleistocene (EP), Mediterranean taxa (mainly *Quercus ilex*
264 accompanied by *Olea*, *Pistacia*, and *Cistus*) were present in assemblages, especially in
265 southern and central Italy, but were infrequent (e.g. Combourieu-Nebout et al., 1995; Magri et
266 al., 2010; Corrado and Magri, 2011). These taxa were not a major component of the
267 vegetation during either interglacial or glacial periods in the EP. Indeed, they probably
268 developed only at low altitude or near the coast. They may have also been scattered through
269 the warm-temperate forest where they persisted during the glacial phases.

270 In the North, moist conditions along the Po valley, the paleo-gulf enabled the
271 persistence of swamp environments during interglacial periods, with *Taxodium*-type. These
272 swamps were also occasionally present during glacials as well, up to the end of the Early
273 Pleistocene (Fusco, 1996, 2007; Fig. 3a, see event A in Fig. 4a, 6a and b). At higher
274 elevations, conifer forests with *Picea* and *Tsuga* developed (Fig. 6a; e.g. Fusco, 2010 and
275 references therein). Declines in subtropical swamp forest began around 2.8 Ma, at the same
276 time of the first expansion of high altitude conifer forest (Fig.4a see event A). This expansion
277 is marked by *Picea* and observed at sites such as Stirone (Bertini, 2001), but also in central
278 Italy, in the Upper Valdarno (Bertini, 2010, 2013). The expansion of conifers in the North
279 marks cooling, but not a drastic decrease of moisture, given the sparse presence of open
280 vegetation during peak glacial phases. Expansion and contraction of the conifer forests mimic
281 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ variations (Fusco, 2010). In Central Italy, however, the glacial phases show significant
282 expansion of steppe taxa especially *Artemisia* (e.g. Bertini, 2010, 2013).
283 Deciduous trees and conifers begin to dominate forests in the North at 2 Ma, marking a
284 second step-change (e.g. Fusco, 2007). Interglacials in the Alps are marked by the presence of

285 Juglandaceae (mainly *Carya*) at around 1.4 Ma, representing increased humidity during
286 interglacials (e.g. Ravazzi and Rossignol Strick, 1995; Fusco, 2007).

287 Subtropical forests in the South expanded during interglacials at low to mid-elevations, with
288 deciduous *Quercus* forests. Conifer forests continue to develop at high altitudes, while herbs
289 are limited to coastal fringes (Fig. 6b; Combourieu-Nebout et al., 2000). During glacials,
290 steppic taxa colonized low altitudes, subtropical and deciduous forest were patchy at middle
291 elevations and conifer forests dominated at high altitudes, expanding from mountain sites
292 (Fig. 6b). Mountain elevations were still too low to permit the development of alpine tundra
293 (Fauquette and Combourieu-Nebout, 2013). Climate oscillations were the major (but not
294 exclusive) drivers of vegetative change (e.g. Bertini 2003; Capraro et al., 2005; Bertini, 2010)
295 as shifts between forest and open vegetation clearly follow G/I cycles driven by obliquity
296 (Figs. 4a, 6a and b; Combourieu-Nebout et al., 1990; Combourieu-Nebout and Vergnaud
297 Grazzini, 1991; Combourieu-Nebout, 1993, 1995; Fusco, 2007; Leroy, 2007; Tzedakis, 2007).

298 Subtropical trees still represent the main forest component during the Early Pleistocene.
299 “Taxodiaceae” progressively decline with the decline of *Taxodium*-type at the
300 Pliocene/Pleistocene boundary followed by *Sequoia*-type at the middle Calabrian (Fig. 3a, see
301 A and B events in Fig. 4a, Fig. 6a). The onset of decline in *Sequoia*-type in southern Italy at
302 around 2.45 Ma coincides with the intensification of sea surface cooling in the Mediterranean,
303 marked by recurrent increases in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values (see B event in Fig 4a; Lourens et al., 1996).

304 Successive cold intervals at the beginning of the Pleistocene likely stressed sub-tropical trees
305 resulting in their progressive decline. Subtropical trees persist in some localities until at least
306 1.6 Ma (e.g. *Cathaya*; Combourieu-Nebout and Vergnaud Grazzini, 1991; Combourieu-
307 Nebout et al., 1990; Bellucci et al., 2014) and possibly even later (Capraro et al., 2005;
308 Corrado and Magri, 2011)(Fig 4a see changes from events B to B’). Today, in China, where
309 *Cathaya* and “Taxodiaceae” including *Sequoia*-type (e.g. *Metasequoia*) are living in the same

areas, they are found in two distinct altitudinal belts, with *Cathaya* higher in elevation than “Taxodiaceae” (Wang, 1961; Wang, 1986). Thus, *Cathaya* development at the expense of “Taxodiaceae” clearly expresses a progressive cooling of the interglacial optima (Combourieu-Nebout and Vergnaud Grazzini, 1991). This result matches the increase of interglacial $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in the marine environments marking cooler sea surface temperatures during interglacial optima (see the Oxygen isotope record in Fig. 3a). At the beginning of the Pleistocene, conifers were probably confined to high altitude sites in the southern Italy mountains, with *Abies*, *Picea*, *Cedrus* and *Tsuga*. *Tsuga* increases during the Calabrian and *Cathaya* declines around 1.6 Ma (Combourieu-Nebout and Vergnaud-Grazzini, 1991; Combourieu-Nebout et al., 1990). Today, *Tsuga* is found at higher elevations than *Cathaya* when both are found in the same region (Wang, 1961). Thus, as with Taxodiaceae and *Cathaya*, vegetation indicates a cooling of interglacial optima and coincides with increases in interglacial $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. Vegetation is again re-organized during the middle Calabrian, around 1.3-1.4 Ma, with the expansion of *Quercus* mixed forest (see event C and D in Fig. 4a and b). Altitudinal forests with *Tsuga* persist and Ericaceae increases in parallel with herbs while *Carya* declines rapidly after 1.3 Ma (see event D and E in Fig. 4b; e.g. Joannin et al., 2007, 2008; Dubois et al., 2001; Corrado and Magri, 2011).

Early Pleistocene climate reconstructions from sites in southern Italy indicate a subtropical climate. Winters were mild during glacials and interglacials with mean temperatures above 5 °C (Klotz et al., 2006 and this paper). Glacial values were slightly cooler and drier than interglacials (Fig. 7, box plots 52-76 and 81-100). A temperature decline occurred around 2 Ma (Fig. 7) associated to a slight cooling during interglacial winters and sharp declines in precipitation during glacials (between box plot 52-76 and 81-100) and interglacials (between box plots 43-79 and 81-101).. Between 1.4 and 1.3 Ma climate reconstructions indicate another cooling period in winter temperatures for both interglacial

maxima (Fig. 7, see difference between boxplot 41-43 and 41-79) and glacial minima (Fig. 7, see difference between boxplot 42-46 and 52-78). During the same period, annual precipitation declines in interglacial and glacial periods (Fig. 7).

4.3.2. The middle Pleistocene (MP - 0.781-0.126 Ma, *Ionian*) and the development of deciduous and altitudinal forest

The 41kyr climate cycles of the EP extended to 100 kyr during the MP, and the length of glacial periods increased (Leroy, 2007; Tzedakis, 2005, 2007; Tzedakis et al., 2012). This change is evident in several Italian records (e.g. Follieri et al., 1988; Russo-Ermolli et al., 1995, 2010; Russo-Ermolli and Cheddadi, 1997; Magri, 1999; Magri and Sadori, 1999; Muttoni et al., 2007, Ravazzi et al., 2009; Fusco, 2010; Magri, 2010; Magri and Palombo, 2013; Orain et al., 2013). Plant communities in the MP were very different from those of late Calabrian, with deciduous *Quercus* forest across the Peninsula during the interglacial and increasing herbaceous cover during glacials. Mediterranean taxa are present with *Quercus ilex* as the main component and they increase in representation during the interglacials.

Deciduous forests dominate in the North and Central Italy during the MP. The increasing length and severity of glacial periods effectively extirpate subtropical taxa from the region and support the expansion of conifer forests in the Alps (e.g. Muttoni et al., 2007, Ravazzi et al., 2009) (Figs 4b, 5a and b). Conifers expanded downslope during cold periods while at lower elevations there was an open herbaceous vegetation mixed with steppic elements (Fig. 4b see event F). Ericaceae were now a non-negligible part of the open vegetation (Fig. 6a).

Deciduous forest also dominates in the South during MP interglacials and *Fagus* begins to increase in proportion. Subtropical trees are absent. *Tsuga* is present sporadically as a relic of the older vegetation (Figs 4b see event F, 5a and b). *Carya* and *Pterocarya* are still

359 found, but rarely, possibly in refuge areas (e.g. Orain et al., 2013). Conifers became
360 established at higher altitudes with *Abies* and expanded during glacial periods (Fig. 4 see
361 event G, Fig 6b)(Orain et al., 2013). During the longer, colder and drier glacial periods herbs
362 colonized lower elevations and land was exposed by dropping sea levels. Steppe proportions
363 increased during the glacial period after 0.3-0.2 Ma as a signal of drought's increase (Fig. 4b
364 see after event H).

365 Pollen-inferred climate indicates low temperatures in both glacial and interglacial
366 periods. Maxima for MP interglacial periods are near the lowest values observed during the
367 LP glacials. MP glacial periods experience much lower temperatures (Fig. 7). Cool
368 interglacials that are longer than previous interglacials (Tzedakis, 2007, Tzedakis et al., 2012),
369 may explain the increase in conifers, the expansion of *Quercus* forest at mid altitude and the
370 increase in *Fagus* (e.g. Russo-Ermolli and Cheddadi, 1997; Russo-Ermolli et al., 1995, 2010;
371 Magri, 1999; Magri and Sadori, 1999). The increases in Ericaceae and herbs in southern Italy
372 may also be related to the cooler and longer glacial periods (Figs 6a and b). Polleninferred
373 climate reconstructions show annual precipitation values near to modern during interglacials
374 while glacials are dry. Precipitation seasonality exists during the interglacials (Fig. 7).
375 Although, pollen inferred reconstructions exhibit climate oscillations with warm/humid
376 interglacials and cold/dry glacials, during the MP, some interglacials seem to experience
377 cooler winters than glacials, especially stage 11 (Fig. 7). Precipitation at stage 11 appears
378 lower during winter and higher in summer. Reconstructed values for isotope stage 11 are the
379 lowest of the interglacial MTCO box plot series while precipitation appears higher than in
380 preceeding periods. The Stage 11 reconstructions come from assemblages in the Boiano
381 section, and such needs to be confirmed by more analyses on other series as it is not a
382 common feature in G/I alternation. The Boiano basin may be a refuge for vegetation during
383 Stage 11, potentially biasing estimates because of the presence of taxa such as *Carya* that

persist at this site, while regional climate may be less suited to their presence (Orain et al., 2013). Younger G/I cycles show the standard pattern of opposition between interglacial and glacial values, although contrast appears low between the two. The lowest glacial MTCO values are recorded during stages 6-8 (Fig.7).

4.3.3. The Late Pleistocene (LP - 0.125-0.01 Ma, *Tarantian*) and the Sustainability of drought

Several pollen records capture the Late Pleistocene (LP) in Italy (e.g. Mullenders et al., 1996; Follieri et al., 1998; Magri, 1999; Magri and Sadori, 1999; Ravazzi, 2002; Kent et al., 2002; Allen et al., 1999; Allen and Huntley, 2000, 2009; Brauer et al., 2007b; Pini et al., 2009a, b) and demonstrate the extent, duration and recurrence of drought through the regular expansion of steppe/semi desert over large areas in Italy, increasing after isotope Stage 11. The last LP interglacial/glacial cycle is expressed through a deciduous forest - steppe alternation in the North as in the South (Fig. 4b). Mediterranean taxa are well represented during the warm interglacial periods and restricted during the last glacial period.

In the North, the proportion of conifers increases from the Po valley towards the Alps (Fig. 3a and b; e.g., Mullenders et al., 1996; Pini et al., 2009a, b). *Picea* and *Abies* occupy upper elevations and are mixed with deciduous *Quercus* at middle to low altitude during the last interglacial (Ravazzi, 2002). Herbaceous and steppic vegetation occupy northern valleys during glacial periods. Mediterranean taxa are rarely present in the North even if they may be considered in the regional vegetation.

In Southern Italy, the last interglacial is marked by the development of deciduous *Quercus* forest at mid altitudes, with strong rise in *Fagus* (Figs. 3 and b, 4b see after event H, 6b, 8; e.g. Watts et al, 1996, 2000; Magri and Sadori, 1999; Follieri et al., 1998, Allen et al.,

2000, 2002; Brauer et al., 2007). In fact, *Abies* and *Fagus* increased at higher altitudes in the Apennines, while at low altitudes Mediterranean communities expanded. Herbs and steppic taxa were probably restricted to the coast. Chenopodiaceae increased in importance within the open vegetation assemblages, especially during glacial periods, probably spreading out in an edaphic fringe near the coast and over the land opened by the sea level lowering (Figs 4b, 6b; e.g. Magri and Sadori, 1999; Follieri et al., 1998; Allen et al., 1999; Allen and Huntley, 2000, 2009; Brauer et al., 2007b). A steady Mediterranean forest was established at mid altitude, especially south to 43°N. During glacial phases, and especially during Isotopic Stage 3, peaks of steppic elements regularly indicate changes in vegetation associated with arid periods (Allen et al., 1999; Fletcher et al., 2011) recognized from the western Mediterranean and concurrent with North Atlantic Heinrich events as observed at the same time in the western Mediterranean (e.g. Combourieu Nebout et al., 2002; Sanchez-Goni et al., 2002). This clearly indicates the ability of vegetation in the central Mediterranean to respond quickly to abrupt climate events.

Pollen inferred reconstructions performed on the South Italian sites show that MTCO in Isotopic Stage 5e is nearly as warm as the EP interglacials (Fig. 7). Nevertheless annual precipitation remains low with respect to the older interglacials. During the glacial period, climate values are all very low and correspond to the lowest values obtained in the whole boxplot record (Fig.7). This is probably linked to recurrent Mediterranean cooling, along with increased aridity induced by the global climate effects of Heinrich event discharges in the North Atlantic (e.g. Combourieu-Nebout et al., 2002; Sanchez Goni et al., 2002).

4.3.4. The Last deglaciation and Holocene: the installation of the Mediterranean climate seasonality and human pressure on the Mediterranean environments.

431 The last deglaciation and Holocene in Italy is well described by pollen records. These
432 records show the step-wise development of deciduous *Quercus* forests in Northern Italy (e.g.
433 Joannin et al., 2013) and of Mediterranean mixed forests in Southern Italy (e.g. Rossignol-
434 Strick et al, 1992; Zonneveld, 1996; Combourieu-Nebout et al., 1998, 2013; Magri and
435 Sadori, 1999; Allen et al., 2002; Rossignol Strick and Planchais, 1989; Oldfield, 2003,
436 Drescher Schneider et al., 2007; Sadori et al., 2011, 2013b; Di Rita and Magri, 2012; Joannin
437 et al., 2012, di Rita and Magri 2012; di Rita et al., 2013 and references therein,) (Fig. 3a and
438 b, Fig. 4b; Fig. 8). The early Holocene Maximum is marked by a humid event, expressed by
439 increases in Po discharges in the Adriatic Sea and increases in high elevation forests (e.g.
440 Combourieu-Nebout et al., 1998, 2013). After 4.2 kyr, pollen records show increasing
441 dryness, expressed as an expansion of herbs and Mediterranean taxa. After the 4.2 kyr event
442 we begin to see the onset of present-day precipitation seasonality and increases in human
443 impacts, through deforestation and agriculture (e.g. di Rita and Magri, 2009; Sadori et al.,
444 2011, 2013b; Combourieu-Nebout et al., 2013). Thus pollen inferred reconstructions show the
445 modern Mediterranean climate regime setting up with an inversion of the winter and summer
446 precipitation trends after 4.2 kyr, well illustrated in the regional record from the marine MD
447 90-917 core (Fig.7; Combourieu-Nebout et al., 2013). Italian precipitation regime
448 modifications and aridification fit to the scenario of Mediterranean Holocene climatic changes
449 outlined in Pons and Quezel (1985) and Jalut et al (2000, 2009). Forever drastic until today all
450 two drove the recent vegetation changes in Italy and, will influence simultaneously with
451 human impact the behavior of Mediterranean ecosystems in the future.

452 5. Conclusion

453 Pollen records are used to show the step-wise change in vegetation patterns on the
454 Italian peninsula over the past 5 million years. These pollen records show the relationships

- 455 between successive vegetation changes and climate variations (temperature and precipitation)
456 in the Mediterranean:
- 457 – A North-South gradient exists on the peninsula at least from the Pliocene based on
458 vegetation composition. After a warm and humid Pliocene, the Early Pleistocene,
459 characterized by the beginning of G/I cycles, experiences a progressive decline in
460 subtropical taxa, *Taxodium*-type (~3-2.8 Ma), then *Sequoia*-type (~2 Ma) and then
461 *Cathaya* (after 1.6 Ma), while steppic associations occur cyclically, expanding during
462 glacial periods. This marks first step-wise declines in humidity and winter
463 temperature, around 2 Ma and 1.4-1.3 Ma.
 - 464 – During the Middle and Late Pleistocene, new vegetation associations occur, marked
465 by the expansion of conifer forest in the north and of deciduous *Quercus* forest, with
466 *Fagus* and *Betula*, in the south. At the same time herbs and steppic taxa expand over a
467 large area, especially during glacial periods. The next cooling step occurs at 0.4-0.5
468 Ma, with a decline in precipitation and winter temperature during glacials, although
469 interglacials stay relatively humid.
 - 470 – The modern Mediterranean summer drought is finally established after 4.2 kyr, during
471 the Holocene, following a humid climatic optimum (especially in summer).

472

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1156 **Figure Captions**

1157 Figure 1: Present-day vegetation and climate in Italy (modified from Pignatti, 2011). A
1158 selection of climatic (ombrothermic) diagrams illustrate the modern North/South climate
1159 gradient calculated with the NewLocClim software (Gieser et al., 2006).

1160 Figure 2: Selected Italian sites : 1) Azzano Decimo; 2) Lago di Ledro; 3) Piànico-Sèllere,
1161 Leffe, Fornaci di Ranica; 4) Fimon; 5) Venice; 6) Pianengo; 7) Rio Ca' Viettone; 8)
1162 Villafranca RDB; 9) Stirone, Castell'Arquato (Campile), Monte Falcone-Rio Crevalese; 10)
1163 Compiano; 11) Aulla-Vallescura; 12) Monticino 1987, Lamone composite section; 13)
1164 Sarzana; 14) Cava di Villanova; 15) Castel d'Appio; 16) Val Marecchia; 17) Lower Valdarno
1165 basin: San Quintino, Ponte a Elsa and other sections; 18) Upper Valdarno basin: Santa
1166 Barbara, Rena Bianca and other composite sections; 19) Maccarone; 20) Gubbio; 21) Lago
1167 dell'Accesa; 22) Pietrafitta, Tiberino basin: Fosso Bianco, Cava Toppetti and other composite
1168 sections; 23) Colle Curti - Cesi composite section; 24) Leonessa; 25) Lagaccione, Lago di
1169 Vico; 26) Marine core RF 93-30; 27) Madonna della Strada; 28) Corvaro, Borgorose and
1170 Marano de' Marsi; 29) Valle di Castiglione, Valle Ricca; 30) Lago Battaglia; 31) Sessano, La
1171 Pineta-Isernia; 32) Boiano; 33) Marine core MD 90-917, Marine core AD 91-17, Marine core
1172 KET 82-16, Marine core KET SA 03-1, Marine core IN 68-9; 34) Saticula (Sant'Agata de'
1173 Goti - BN); 35) Acerno; 36) Monticchio; 37) Salerno marine core C106; 38) Vallo di Diano;
1174 39) Montalbano Jonico, Sant'Arcangelo; 40) Lago Alimini; 41) Camerota; 42) Mercure; 43)
1175 Lago di Trifoglietti; 44) core KET8003; 45) Valle di Manche; 46) Semaforo and Vrica
1176 sections, Santa Lucia; 47) Bianco; 48) Monte Singa; 49) Canolo Nuovo; 50) Le Castella; 51)
1177 Lago di Preola; 52) Lago di Pergusa; 53) Punta Piccola, Capo Rossello composite section; 54)
1178 Monte San Giorgio; 55) Monte San Nicola (Gela); 56) marine core MD 01-2797. Sites used
1179 for pollen diagrams (Fig. 3 and 8) and pollen based climate reconstructions (Fig.7) are

1180 indicated in red. The orange dotted line represents the 42°5N latitude limit between Northern
1181 and Southern Italy.

1182

1183 Figure 3a: Dominant vegetation during warm (interglacial, squares) and cold (glacial, stars)
1184 periods in Italy for the six main stages from Pliocene to Early Pleistocene. Orange line
1185 corresponds to the latitudinal limit of 42°5N

1186 Figure 3b: Dominant vegetation during warm (squares) and cold (stars) periods in Italy for the
1187 six main stages from the middle Pleistocene to modern. Orange line corresponds to the
1188 latitudinal limite of 42°5N

1189 Figure 4a: Vegetation changes in Northern and Southern Italy using representative pollen
1190 diagrams from 5 Ma to 0.9 Ma.

1191 A: decrease in *Taxodium* type and increase in altitudinal trees, B: onset of decrease in
1192 “Taxodiaceae” (*Sequoia* type) and increase in steppic vegetation, B’; extinction of
1193 “Taxodiaceae” and development of *Cathaya*, C extinction of tropical forest and *Cathaya*,
1194 development of *Tsuga* and *Quercus*, D: increase in *Quercus* forest and development of
1195 Ericaceae. E increase in herbs.

1196

1197 Figure 4b: Vegetation changes in North and South Italy using representative pollen diagrams
1198 from 1.2 Ma to 0 Ma.

1199 D: increase in *Quercus* forest and development of Ericaceae. E: increase in herbs, F increase
1200 in *Quercus* and extinction of *Tsuga*, G: development of *Abies* and *Picea*, H: increase in
1201 *Fagus*, development of Mediterranean forest, expansion of open vegetation and steppic
1202 vegetation.

1203

1204 Figure 5: The onset of the Mediterranean flora and climate in the Mediterranean area
1205 (modified from Quézel et al., 2003 and Sadori et al., 2013).

1206 Figure 6a: Vegetation profiles from the Pliocene to the Holocene at latitude above 42°5N.

1207 Figure 6b: Vegetation profiles from the Pliocene to the Holocene at latitude below 42°5N.

1208 Figure 7: Climate changes in South Italy from Early Pleistocene to present day. Results are
1209 presented as boxplots summarizing time periods for interglacials: Holocene (Hol), stage 5e,
1210 stage 7-9, stage 11, stages 13-15, stages 23-27, stages 41-43, stages 45-79, stages 81-101; and
1211 for glacials: stages 2-4, stages 6-8, stages 12, stages 14-16, stages 22-28, stages 40-46; stages
1212 52-78, stages 80-100. Interglacials are plotted in red and glacials in blue in two separate
1213 diagrams. On the right, for the whole time series; on the left, for the last cycle in Monticchio
1214 and for the Last deglaciation and Holocene for core MD 91-917.

1215 Bold lines represent the median, fine lines connect the means. The dotted line marks the
1216 extreme values interval (interquartile range no more than 1.5) and outliers are indicated by
1217 small empty circles.

1218 Figure 8: Representative vegetation changes during the last climate cycle in Northern and
1219 Southern Italy. Same legend as Fig. 4 a and b.

1220
1221 **Table caption**
1222 Table 1. List of the sites used in this paper with their location, sediment type (C, continental
1223 sites; L, lacustrine sites; M, marine cores), the time slice covered and the main related
1224 bibliography references (in bold with palynology included, in italic, other references).